Derandomization and Group Testing

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Abstract—The rapid development of derandomization theory, which is a fundamental area in theoretical computer science, has recently led to many surprising applications outside its initial intention. We will review some recent such developments related to combinatorial group testing. In its most basic setting, the aim of group testing is to identify a set of "positive" individuals in a population of items by taking groups of items and asking whether there is a positive in each group.

In particular, we will discuss explicit constructions of optimal or nearly-optimal group testing schemes using "randomness-conducting" functions. Among such developments are constructions of error-correcting group testing schemes using randomness extractors and condensers, as well as threshold group testing schemes from lossless condensers.

I. INTRODUCTION

Combinatorial group testing is a classical problem that dates back to several decades ago [1] and has recently attracted increased attention mainly due to its numerous applications in various theoretical and practical areas. Intuitively, the problem can be described as follows: Suppose that, in a population of n individuals, it is suspected that up to d of them (known as defectives) carry a certain disease that can be diagnosed by testing blood samples. Typically, the parameters d is considered to be substantially smaller than n. An economical way of testing the samples is to pool them in groups. For each pool, one can apply the test on the combination. A negative outcome would imply that none of the samples participating in the pool are infected, whereas a positive outcome means that at least one of the individuals corresponding to the group is infected. The challenge is then, to design a pooling strategy that minimizes the number of tests that have to be performed in order to identify the exact set of defectives.

Over the decades, numerous constructions and variations of group testing schemes have been proposed in the literature (cf. [2], [3] for a review of the major developments). Among those, *non-adaptive* testing schemes in which the tests are designed and fixed before any measurements are performed are of particular interest, especially for applications in biology. Designing the tests for non-adaptive schemes is an interesting, and challenging, combinatorial problem that has been extensively studied in the literature. Straightforward techniques from the probabilistic method can be used to show that random designs are able to distinguish the set of defectives using a nearly optimal number of tests and with overwhelming probability. It is however much more challenging to *derandomize*

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this task and come up with an *explicit*; i.e., deterministic, way of designing the tests that achieve, or approach, the same qualities as offered by randomized constructions. Explicit constructions are also important from a practical point of view, where a design failure can be costly and has to be avoided.

Derandomization theory is an area at the core of theoretical computer science that aims for a systematic study of tools and techniques that can be used to reduce, or eliminate, the need for randomness in computational tasks. Some major examples include simulating randomized algorithms with deterministic ones, and derandomizing probabilistic combinatorial constructions (cf. [4]). In particular, tools from derandomization theory has been recently used for designing optimal, or nearly optimal, explicit combinatorial group testing schemes. In this paper we give a simplified exposition of certain such developments [5], [6]. In particular, we study:

- Highly noise-resilient group testing schemes that reliably approximate the set of defectives using a substantially smaller number of tests than what required for their exact identification.
- 2) Explicit group testing schemes for the *threshold model*, where a test outputs positive if the number of positives present in the pool exceeds a certain, arbitrary, threshold.

The main combinatorial tools used for the above-mentioned constructions are the notions of *lossless expanders*, *randomness extractors* and *condensers* that are major topics of interest in derandomization theory. For this exposition, we will only highlight the main ideas and, for that matter, present proofs mainly for certain restricted cases.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section II we review the classical group testing model and some of its variations, including noisy and threshold models. In Section III we revisit a classical known combinatorial property, called *disjunctness* and see how it is related to *graph expansion*. We proceed to introduce constructions of noise-resilient group testing schemes using expander and extractor graphs in Section IV. Finally, Section V discusses the more general threshold model and introduces a construction of non-adaptive schemes for this model using lossless expander graphs.

II. GROUP TESTING AND VARIATIONS

In classical group testing, in formal terms, we wish to identify an unknown d-sparse binary vector; i.e., $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ such that

$$|\{i: x_i = 1\}| \le d,$$

by performing a number of *measurements*. Define the *support* of x (in symbols, supp(x)), as the set of nonzero entries of x (known as *positives*). Each measurement is specified by a subset of coordinate positions

$$S \subseteq [n] := \{1, \dots, n\}$$

and outputs a binary value which is positive if and only if S contains one or more positives; i.e., if $S \cap \operatorname{supp}(x) \neq \emptyset$. The main challenge is then to design a measurement scheme, with a reasonably small number of measurements, so that every d-sparse vector can be uniquely identified from the measurement outcomes.

In this paper, we are interested in *non-adaptive* measurements. This is when the set of the coordinate positions defining each measurement is a priori fixed and does not depend on the outcome of the previous measurements. We find it convenient to think of a non-adaptive measurement scheme as a bipartite graph G(L,R,E), called the *measurement graph*. The set of left vertices of this graph is L:=[n], in one-to-one correspondence with the coordinate positions of x, and right vertices (the set R) correspond to the measurements. Naturally, the ith right vertex is connected to the set of coordinate position specified by the ith measurement, and this defines the edge set E.

Numerous variations and extensions of classical group testing have been studied in the literature. In this paper, we mention the following:

- *Noisy group testing:* In this variation, measurement outcomes may be incorrect. In particular, we may allow *false positives* (i.e., when a negative outcome is read positive), *false negatives* (when a positive becomes negative), or both. The nature of bit flips might be *stochastic*, i.e., an outcome flips with a certain probability, or *adversarial*, i.e., an adversary may arbitrarily flip the measurement outcomes while being limited only in the number of bit flips.
- Threshold model: This model was introduced by Damaschke [7] as a natural extension of classical group testing. The difference between classical group testing and threshold testing is that, in the threshold model, a measurement specified by a set S of the coordinate positions outputs positive if and only if

$$|S \cap \operatorname{supp}(x)| \ge u$$
,

i.e., when there are at least u positives 1 in the pool S, for some fixed constant parameter u. We will use the shorthand u-threshold testing for this model. Obviously, classical group testing corresponds to the special case u=1. Damaschke also considers a *positive-gap* threshold model that is characterized by lower and upper thresholds ℓ, u where $\ell < u$. In this model, a measurement outputs positive if there are u or more positives in the pool,

negative if there are no more than ℓ positives, and may behave arbitrarily otherwise. The gap parameter is defined as $g:=u-\ell-1$. Thus, u-threshold testing is the special case when g=0. For the sake of this exposition, we only focus on this gap-free case, but point out that our discussions extend to the positive-gap case in a straightforward manner.

For a measurement graph G and sparse vector $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, we will use the notation G[x] for the binary vector of measurement outcomes resulting from the measurements specific by the graph G, and more generally, $G_u[x]$ for the vector of measurement outcomes in the u-threshold model.

III. DISJUNCTNESS AND EXPANSION

The graph-theoretic property required for the classical group testing model is the following *disjunctness* property. We will use the notation $\Gamma(v)$ for the set of neighbors of a vertex v in a graph and $\Gamma(S)$ for the set of neighbors of a subset S of vertices, i.e.,

$$\Gamma(S) := \cup_{v \in S} \Gamma(v).$$

Definition 1. A bipartite graph G(L, R, E) is called (d, e)-disjunct if, for every left vertex $i \in L$ and every set $S \subseteq L$ such that $|S| \leq d$ and $i \notin S$, we have

$$|\Gamma(i) \setminus \Gamma(S)| > e$$
.

We refer to the elements of $\Gamma(i) \setminus \Gamma(S)$ as distinguishing vertices. The parameter e is called the *noise tolerance* and a (d,0)-disjunct matrix is simply called d-disjunct.

By rephrasing the standard results in classical group testing, we see that disjunctness is the key combinatorial property needed for group testing. In particular, d-disjunct measurement graphs can uniquely identify d-sparse vectors, as stated below.

Lemma 2. Let G be a (d,e)-disjunct graph. Then for every distinct pairs $x,x' \in \{0,1\}^n$ of d-sparse vectors, we have $\Delta(G[x],G[x']) > e$, where $\Delta(\cdot)$ denotes the Hamming distance between vectors.

Proof: Without loss of generality, take any $i \in \operatorname{supp}(x) \setminus \operatorname{supp}(x')$ and $S := \operatorname{supp}(x')$. By the disjunctness property, we have that $D := \Gamma(i) \setminus \Gamma(S)$ has more than e distinguishing vertices in it. Now one can immediately see that G[x] is positive at all positions corresponding to D (since they are connected to i) while G[x'] is negative (since they are not connected to any position on the support of x').

The noise tolerance e is called so since, according to the above lemma, a larger e would make the measurements outcomes further apart, allowing for more resilience against measurement errors in noisy group testing. In particular, a (d,e)-disjunct graph can uniquely distinguish between d-sparse vectors even if up to $\lfloor e/2 \rfloor$ adversarial errors are allowed in the measurements.

The proof of Lemma 2 suggests the following decoding procedure, that we will call the "trivial decoder":

 $^{^{1}}$ In the threshold model, we implicitly assume that the support size of the unknown vector x is guaranteed to be at least u, since otherwise all measurement outcomes would have to be negative.

Trivial Decoder: Given a particular measurement outcome y, set the coordinate position of x corresponding to each left vertex i to be 1 if and only if $\Gamma(i) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(y)$.

It is easy to see that this simple procedure uniquely reconstructs every d-sparse vector x provided that the graph is d-disjunct. The trivial decoder can be adapted to the noisy case by setting each coordinates position i to be positive if and only if $|\Gamma(i) \setminus \text{supp}(y)| \leq \lfloor e/2 \rfloor$.

In this section, we see how graph expansion is related to disjunctness. A left-regular bipartite graph graph with left-degree t (henceforth, t-regular graph) G(L,R,E) is called a (k,a)-expander if, for every left-subset $S\subseteq L$ of size at most k, we have

$$|\Gamma(S)| > a|S|$$
.

Obviously, we must have $a \leq t$ for this condition to be satisfied. The parameter a is called the *expansion factor* and graphs with expansion close to the degree are called *lossless expanders*. In particular, for an *error parameter* ϵ , we will call a $(k, t(1-\epsilon))$ expander graph a (k, ϵ) -lossless expander. The following counting argument shows that lossless expanders are, in fact, disjunct graphs.

Lemma 3. Let G=(L,R,E) be a t-regular (d,ϵ) -lossless expander. Then, for every $\alpha \in [0,1)$, G is $(d-1,\alpha t)$ -disjunct provided that

$$\epsilon < \frac{1-\alpha}{d}$$
.

Proof: Take any left vertex $i \in L$ and $S \subseteq L$ such that $|S| \leq d-1$ and $i \notin S$. By Definition 1, we need to verify that $|\Gamma(i) \setminus \Gamma(S)| > \alpha t$. Let $T := \Gamma(S \cup \{i\})$. Denote by T' the set of vertices in T that have more than one neighbor in S. By the expansion assumption, we know that $|T| \geq (1-\epsilon)dt$, implying that $|T'| \leq \epsilon dt < (1-\alpha)t$. Now we have

$$|\Gamma(i) \cap \Gamma(S)| \le |T'| < (1 - \alpha)t.$$

Thus,

$$|\Gamma(i) \setminus \Gamma(S)| = t - |\Gamma(i) \cap \Gamma(S)| > \alpha t.$$

As trivial as it is to construct non-adaptive group testing schemes with a large number of measurements (namely, one that measures each individual coordinate position separately), it is trivial to construct lossless expanders (as defined above) with a large number of right vertices. In particular, a t-regular (k,0)-lossless expander for every k can be constructed as follows: Connect each left vertex to t new vertices on the right side, so that the right degree of the graph becomes 1. Indeed, such a graph is (d,t-1)-disjunct for every d and corresponds to a trivial group testing scheme. However, in order to get any useful results, one needs to construct highly unbalanced lossless expanders with substantially small number of right vertices.

Using the probabilistic method, Capalbo et al. [8] show that a random construction of bipartite graphs G(L, R, E) with

|L|=n is, with overwhelming probability, (k,ϵ) -lossless t-regular expander where $t=O((\log n)/\epsilon)$ and $|R|=O(kt/\epsilon)$. Moreover they show that this tradeoff is about the best one can hope for. Thus, using Lemma 3 we see that optimal expanders are d-disjunct graphs with $O(d^3\log n)$ right vertices (measurements). More generally, for every $\alpha\in[0,1)$ we get (d,e)-disjunct matrices, where $e=\Omega(\alpha d\log n/(1-\alpha))$, with $O(d^3(\log n)/(1-\alpha)^2)$ right vertices.

A direct probabilistic argument, however, shows that a randomly constructed graph (according to a carefully chosen distribution) is, with overwhelming probability, d-disjunct with $O(d^2\log(n/d))$ measurements. More generally, for every $\alpha \in [0,1)$, random graphs are (d,e)-disjunct with $e = \Omega(\alpha d\log n/(1-\alpha)^2)$ and $O(d^2\log(n/d)/(1-\alpha)^2)$ measurements. This tradeoff is almost optimal since known lower bounds in group testing [9], [10], [11] imply that any (d,e)-disjunct graph must have $\Omega(d^2\log_d n + ed)$ right vertices. Therefore, an optimal lossless expander achieves a number of measurements that is off from nearly-optimal random disjunct graphs by a factor $\Omega(d)$.

While we discussed the number of measurements achieved by random disjunct graphs and random expanders, for applications it is generally favorable to have a design that avoids any randomness. In particular, a challenging goal in group testing is to come up with *explicit* constructions of measurement graphs. The exact meaning of "explicit" is up to debate. One generally recognized notion of explicitness is the existence of a deterministic algorithm that outputs the adjacency matrix of the measurement graph in polynomial time with respect to its size. A more stringent requirement would be to have a deterministic algorithm that, given integer parameters i, j, outputs the index of the jth neighbor of the ith left vertex of the graph in polynomial time in the bit representation of (i, j) (i.e., poly(log n) where n is the dimension of the sparse vector to be measured).

The state-of-the-art explicit constructions of lossless expanders still do not attain the optimal parameters. For our applications, some notable explicit lossless expanders include:

- Zig-Zag based (k,ϵ) -lossless expanders due to Capalbo et al. [8]: Achieves degree $t=2^{O(\log^3(\log(n)/\epsilon))}$ and $|R|=O(kt/\epsilon)$ right vertices.
- Coding-based expander of Guruswami et al. [12]: For every constant parameter $\gamma>0$, achieves degree

$$t = O\left(((\log n)(\log k)/\epsilon)^{1+1/\gamma}\right)$$

and right part size $|R| \le t^2 k^{1+\gamma}$.

Using Lemma 3, the two constructions result in explicit d-disjunct graphs with respectively d^2 quasipoly($d \log n$) and $O(d^4 \log^2 n \log^2 d)$ measurements (by setting $\gamma := 1$). Analogous expressions can be obtained for the noise-tolerant case as well. We remark that explicit nearly optimal disjunct graphs (with $O(d^2 \log n)$ measurements) can be obtained from the recent construction of Porat and Rothschild [13]. This construction is however not explicit in the more stringent sense discussed above. The classical work of Kautz and Singleton

[14] (that uses Reed-Solomon codes as the main ingredient) can be used to construct fully explicit d-disjunct graphs with $O(d^2 \log^2 n)$ measurements, which is fairly sub-optimal.

IV. GRAPHS FROM CONDENSERS AND EXTRACTORS

A nice way of thinking about a (k,ϵ) -lossless expander is through *injectivity*: for every subset S of left vertices, where $|S| \leq k$, the neighborhood $\Gamma(S)$ has little *collisions*. Namely, almost all vertices in $\Gamma(S)$ are connected to only one vertex in S. Therefore, if the jth neighbor of a vertex $v \in S$ is connected to $v' \in \Gamma(S)$, from v' one can almost always uniquely recover v and j.

An injective map preserves *entropy*. Thus, the above discussion can be rephrased in information-theoretic terms. Denote by $\Gamma(S)$ the probability distribution induced on the set of right vertices by picking a uniformly random neighbor of a uniformly random left vertex in S. For a t-regular graph, the entropy of the distribution induced on the edges of the graph by the above sampling procedure is $\log(|S|t)$. The almost-injectivity property of the graph intuitively implies that this entropy must be almost preserved in $\Gamma(S)$. In fact, the intuition can be made precise to show that $\Gamma(S)$ is ϵ -close to a distribution with entropy k [15]. Here, the measure of distance is statistical distance: Two distributions are ϵ -close if and only if the probability that they assign to any event is different by at most ϵ . The measure of entropy is the notion of minentropy which lower bounds Shannon entropy: A distribution on a finite domain has min-entropy $\log k$ if and only if the probability that it assigns to each element of the sample space is upper bonded by 1/k.

The information theoretic interpretation of lossless expanders suggest the following generalized notion: Call a t-regular graph G(L,R,E) a $k \to_{\epsilon} k'$ condenser if, for every $S \subseteq L$ of size k, the distribution $\Gamma(S)$ induced on R is ϵ -close to a distribution with entropy $\log(tk')$. Therefore, a (k,ϵ) -lossless expander is a $\underline{k} \to_{\epsilon} \underline{k}$ condenser for every $\underline{k} \le k$.

A particularly interesting special case is when k' = |R|. In this case, the output distribution $\Gamma(S)$ becomes almost uniform on the set of right vertices. A $k \to_{\epsilon} |R|$ condenser is called a (k, ϵ) -extractor.

In the previous section, we saw that lossless expanders are disjunct graphs as long as the error is sufficiently small; namely, smaller than about 1/d. If we allow a larger, and in particular, constant error, we cannot hope for a disjunct graph since the number of right vertices would be allowed to violate the known lower bounds for disjunct graphs. However, in this section we see that such graph are still able to *approximate* sparse vectors, even in highly noisy settings. The key idea is captured by the following lemma.

Lemma 4. Let G(L,R,E) be a t-regular (k,ϵ) -extractor. Then, for every d-sparse vector $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ where n := |L| the following holds provided that $dt < |R|(1-\epsilon)$: Given y := G[x], the trivial decoder outputs $x' \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $\sup p(x) \subseteq \sup p(x')$ and $|\sup p(x')| < k$.

Proof: By the way the trivial decoder is designed, it

obviously does not output any false negatives; i.e., we are ensured to have $\operatorname{supp}(x) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(x')$. Let $S := \operatorname{supp}(x')$ and suppose now, for the sake of contradiction, that $|S| \geq k$. Thus the extractor property ensures that the distribution $\Gamma(S)$ is ϵ -close to the uniform distribution on R.

Now consider the event $T:= \operatorname{supp}(y) \subseteq R$. The probability mass assigned to this event by the distribution $\Gamma(S)$ is equal to 1 since the trivial decoder is defined so that for each $i \in \operatorname{supp}(x')$, we have $\Gamma(i) \subseteq T$. On the other hand, the probability assigned to T by the uniform distribution on R is $|\operatorname{supp}(y)|/|R|$, which is at most

$$\frac{t \cdot |\mathsf{supp}(x)|}{R} \le \frac{td}{R}.$$

Since $\Gamma(S)$ is ϵ -close to uniform, it must be that

$$\frac{td}{R} \ge 1 - \epsilon,$$

contradicting the assumption.

The above lemma can be extended to arbitrary $k \to_{\epsilon} k'$ condensers, in which case the required tradeoff would become $d < k'(1-\epsilon)$ (through a similar line of argument). Since, obviously, for any condenser one must have $k \geq k'$, the bound k-d-1 on the number of false positives in the approximation output by the trivial decoder can be minimized by taking the measurement graph to be a lossless expander (so that k=k'). In particular, by letting $\epsilon \ll 1/(d+1)$ one can recover the statement of Lemma 3. However, a constant ϵ (even, say, $\epsilon=1/2$) may still keep the amount of false positives in the reconstruction bounded by O(d).

Same as lossless expanders, the probabilistic method can be used to show that (k,ϵ) -extractor graphs exist with degree $t=O(\log(n-k)/\epsilon^2)$ and $|R|=\Omega(\epsilon^2tk)$ right vertices. Moreover, this is about the best tradeoff to hope for [16].

Using an optimal extractor or an optimal lossless expander in the result discussed above gives measurement graphs with $O(d\log n)$ right vertices for which the trivial decoder results in only O(d) false positives in the reconstruction. At the cost of a loss in the constant factors, the amount of false positives can be kept bounded by δd for any arbitrary constant $\delta>0$ when a lossless expander is used.

A non-adaptive scheme as above can be used in a so-called *trivial two-stage schemes* [17] as follows: After obtaining a set of size O(d) of *candidate positives*, one can apply individual tests on the elements of this set to identify the exact set of positives. For most practical applications, such schemes are as good as fully non-adaptive schemes.

The result given by Lemma 4 is extended in [5] to not only general condensers, but also highly noisy settings when both false positives and false negatives may occur in the measurement outcomes. When false negatives are allowed in the measurements, the trivial decoder should be slightly altered to include those coordinate positions in the support of the reconstruction that have a sufficient "agreement" with the measurement outcomes. We omit the details in this exposition, but instead state the tradeoffs obtained when the result is instantiated with optimal extractors and lossless expanders:

- An optimal extractor can be set to tolerate any constant fraction $p \in [0,1)$ of false positives in the measurements (i.e., when up to p fraction of the measurement outcomes may adversarially be flipped from 0 to 1) and an $\Omega(1/d)$ fraction of false negatives. The reconstruction is guaranteed to output a sparse vector containing the support of the original vector x and possibly up to O(d) additional false positives.
- An optimal lossless expander can be set to tolerate some constant fraction of false positives and $\Omega(1/d)$ fraction of false negatives in the measurement outcomes and still reconstruct any d-sparse vector up to δd false positives, for any arbitrarily chosen constant $\delta > 0$.

We see that, while optimal extractors offer a better noise resilience compared to optimal lossless expanders, the latter is more favorable when a fine approximation of the unknown sparse vector is sought for. The above-mentioned parameters achieved by optimal extractors and lossless expanders are essentially optimal [5].

Same as lossless expanders, known explicit extractors still do not match non-constructive parameters. Notable explicit extractors for our applications include:

• Coding-based extractor of Guruswami et al. [12]: Achieves degree

$$t = O((\log n) \cdot 2^{O(\log \kappa \cdot \log(\kappa/\epsilon))})$$

= $O((\log n) \cdot \operatorname{quasipoly}(\log k)),$

where $\kappa := \log k$, and right size

$$|R| = \Omega(\epsilon^2 tk).$$

• Trevisan's extractor [18], [19]: Achieves

$$t = 2^{O(\log^2(\log(n)/\epsilon) \cdot \log \kappa)}$$

and
$$|R| = \Omega(\epsilon^2 tk)$$
 right vertices.

The trade-offs obtained by various choices of the underlying extractor and expander is summarized in Table I. While the parameters obtained by the graphs based on Trevisan's extractor and the lossless expander of Guruswami et al. are superseded by other constructions, it can be shown that [5] these graphs allow a more efficient reconstruction algorithm than the trivial decoder; namely, one that runs in polynomial time with respect to the number of measurements (a quantity that can be in general substantially lower than the running time $O(|L|\cdot|R|)$ of the trivial decoder).

V. EXPANDERS AND THE THRESHOLD MODEL

Lossless expanders are used in [6] to construct measurement graphs suitable for the threshold model, where the threshold \boldsymbol{u} can be an arbitrary constant. This result applies to the positive-gap case as well as the gap-free case. However, in this section we focus our attention to the gap-free model.

The combinatorial property needed for the measurement graphs suitable for the *u*-threshold model is an extension of disjunctness, defined below.

TABLE I

A summary of constructions in Section IV. The parameters $\alpha \in [0,1)$ and $\delta > 0$ are arbitrary constants, m is the number of measurements, e_0 (resp., e_1) the number of tolerable false positives (resp., negatives) in the measurements, and e_0' is the number of false positives in the reconstruction. The underlying condenser corresponding to each row is: (1) optimal extractor, (2) optimal lossless expander, (3) extractor of Guruswami et al. [12], (4) lossless expander of

CAPALBO ET AL. [8], (5) TREVISAN'S EXTRACTOR [18], [19],

(6) LOSSLESS EXPANDER OF GURUSWAMI ET AL. [12].

	m	e_0	e_1	e_0'
1	$O(d \log n)$	αm	$\Omega(m/d)$	O(d)
2	$O(d \log n)$	$\Omega(m)$	$\Omega(m/d)$	δd
3	$O(d^{1+o(1)}\log n)$	αm	$\Omega(m/d)$	O(d)
4	$d \cdot quasipoly(\log n)$	$\Omega(m)$	$\Omega(m/d)$	δd
5	$d \cdot quasipoly(\log n)$	αm	$\Omega(m/d)$	O(d)
6	$poly(d)poly(\log n)$	$poly(d)poly(\log n)$	$\Omega(e_0/d)$	δd

Definition 5. A bipartite graph G(L,R,E) is called (d,e;u)-disjunct (or threshold-disjunct) if, for every left vertex $i \in L$ (called the special vertex), every set $S \subseteq L$ containing i (called the critical set) such that $u \leq |S| \leq d$, and every $Z \subseteq L$ disjoint from S (called the zero set) such that $|Z| \leq |S|$, we have

$$|\{v \in \Gamma(i) \colon |\Gamma(v) \cap Z| = 0 \land |\Gamma(v) \cap S| = u\}| > e.$$
 (1)

In other words, more than e neighbors of i must have no neighbors in Z and exactly u neighbors (including i) in S. The parameter e is called the *noise tolerance*.

A simple combinatorial trick allows us to reduce the problem of designing group testing schemes for the threshold model (i.e., construction of (d, e; u)-disjunct graphs) to the same problem in classical group testing (i.e., (d, e)-disjunct graphs). This is done through a direct product defined below.

Definition 6. Let $G_1(L,R_1,E_1)$ and $G_2(L,R_2,E_2)$ be graphs with the same set of left vertices. Then the product $G_1 \odot G_2$ is a graph $G_3(L,R_3,E_3)$ with $R_3:=R_1\times R_2$ in which a vertex $(i,j)\in R_3$ is connected to $v\in L$ if and only if either $i\in R_1$ in G_1 or $j\in R_2$ in G_2 is connected to v.

Disjunct graphs for the u-threshold model can be constructed by taking the product of ordinary disjunct graphs with graphs satisfying a certain combinatorial property, that here we call regularity. The exact definition of regular graphs is very similar to that of threshold-disjunct graphs. Formally, a (d, e; u)-regular graph is defined exactly as in Definition 5, except that the requirement (1) is modified to

$$|\{v \in R \colon |\Gamma(v) \cap Z| = 0 \land |\Gamma(v) \cap S| = u\}| > e. \tag{2}$$

That is, there is no "special" vertex i this time and the only requirement from the graph is that, for every choice of a critical set S and a zero set Z as in Definition 5, there must be more than e right vertices that are each connected to exactly u vertices in S and none of the vertices in Z.

The following is proved in [6]:

Lemma 7. Let G_1 and G_2 be bipartite graphs with n left vertices, such that G_1 is $(d-1,e_1;u-1)$ -regular. Let $G:=G_1\odot G_2$, and suppose that for d-sparse boolean vectors $x,x'\in\{0,1\}^n$ such that $\operatorname{wgt}(x)\geq\operatorname{wgt}(x')$, we have

$$|\operatorname{supp}(G_2[x]_1) \setminus \operatorname{supp}(G_2[x']_1)| \ge e_2.$$

Then,
$$|\operatorname{supp}(G[x]_u) \setminus \operatorname{supp}(G[x']_u)| \geq (e_1 + 1)e_2$$
.

Thus, if a measurement graph is able to distinguish between d-sparse vectors in the classical model of group testing (i.e., with threshold 1), then its product with a (d-1,e;u-1)-regular matrix distinguishes between d-sparse vectors in the u-threshold model. In fact it turns out that if the original graph is disjunct in the classical sense, the product becomes threshold-disjunct for threshold u. Thus in order to design measurement schemes for the threshold model, it suffices to focus on construction of regular graphs.

A construction of regular graphs based on lossless expanders is given in [6]. The lossless expanders required by this construction have to satisfy a certain property, and we use the term function graph to refer to such graphs. A function graph G(L,R,E) is a t-regular bipartite graph where the set R of the right vertices is partitioned into t equal-sized groups. The requirement is that the t neighbors of each left vertex must each belong to a distinct group. All the above-mentioned explicit, and probabilistic, constructions of lossless expanders are in fact function graphs.

The construction can be conveniently explained using the following graph composition: Let $G_1(L,[t]\times R_1,E_1)$ be a t-regular function graph where the right nodes are partitioned into t groups of size $|R_1|$ each, and $G_2(R_1,R_2,E_2)$ be a bipartite graph. Then the composition $G_1\leadsto G_2$ is a bipartite graph $G_3(L,[t]\times R_2,E_3)$ such that, for each $i\in L,j\in [t],k\in R_2$, an edge (i,(j,k)) is in E_3 if and only if there is a $v\in R_1$ such that $(i,(j,v))\in R_1$ and $(v,k)\in R_2$. Intuitively, the composition can be seen as follows: Each of the t groups of the right vertices in G_1 is replaced by a copy of G_2 , so that a two-layered graph is obtained. Then the two layers are collapsed into one by short-cutting all paths of length two from left to right.

Using the above notation, a construction of regular matrices is described in Fig. 1. Analysis of the construction leads to the following result that is proved in [6]:

Theorem 8. The graph output by the construction described in Fig. 1 is (k/2, pt; u)-regular as long as, in the definition of regularity, the critical set S is restricted to have size at least k/4.

In order to obtain (d, pt; u)-regular graphs, by Theorem 8 it suffices to apply the construction of Fig. 1 for $O(\log d)$ different values of k, namely²,

$$k = 2^{\lceil \log d \rceil + 1}, 2^{\lceil \log d \rceil}, 2^{\lceil \log d \rceil - 1}, \dots, 2^{\lceil \log u \rceil + 2} =: k_0.$$

Fig. 1. Construction of regular matrices.

- Given: A t-regular (k,ϵ) -lossless expander G(L,R,E) where k,|L|,|R| are powers of two, integer parameter $u\geq 1$ and real parameter $p\in [0,1)$ such that $\epsilon<(1-p)/16$,
- Output: A measurement graph with n := |L| left vertices and $m := O_u(tk(|R|/k)^u)$ right vertices.
- Construction: Let $G_1 = (R, R_1, E_1)$ be any bipartite bi-regular graph with $|R_1| = k$, left degree $d_\ell := 8u$, and right degree $d_r := 8u(|R|/k)$. Replace each right vertex v of G_1 with $\binom{d_r}{u}$ vertices, one for each subset of size u of the vertices on the neighborhood of v, and connect them to the corresponding subsets. Denote the resulting graph by $G_2 = (R, R_2, E_2)$, where $|R_2| = k\binom{d_r}{u}$. Output $G \rightsquigarrow G_2$.

By doing so, we obtain $O(\log d)$ graphs. We take the *union* of all the obtained graphs (where for two graphs $G_1(L,R_1,E_1)$ and $G_2(L,R_2,E_2)$ with the same set of left vertices, the union is a graph $G_3(L,R_1\cup R_2,E_3)$ where $e\in E_3$ if and only if $e\in E_1$ or $e\in E_2$). The resulting graph must be (d,pt;u)-regular, since for every possible size of the critical set, Theorem 8 applies for at least one of the components of the union.

Using optimal lossless expanders, the construction leads to (d, e; u)-regular graphs with $O(d(\log d)(\log n))$ right vertices and $e = \Omega(d\log n)$. By taking the direct product of such graphs with optimal explicit $(d, \Omega(d\log n))$ -disjunct graphs of Porat and Rothschild [13] that have $\Omega(d^2\log n)$ right vertices, we would get $(d, \Omega(d^2\log^2 n); u)$ -disjunct graphs with $O(d^3(\log d)(\log^2 n))$ right vertices. The amount of measurements achieved by different choices of the underlying condenser is summarized in Table II.

A direct probabilistic argument can be used to show that, random regular graphs (sampled according a suitably chosen distribution) are, with overwhelming probability, (d,e;u)-disjunct with $m = O(d^2(\log d)\log(n/d)/(1-p)^2)$ and $e = \Omega(pd\log(n/d)/(1-p)^2)$. Moreover, since threshold disjunct graphs are stronger objects than classical disjunct graphs, the above-mentioned lower bound of $m = \Omega(d^2\log_d n + ed)$ applies to them as well, implying that the probabilistic construction is nearly optimal. Thus, the construction described in this section is off by a factor $\Omega(d)$ in the number of measurements even when an optimal lossless expander is available. Closing this gap is an interesting question for future research.

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 $^{^2}$ The case where the sparsity (the size of the critical set) lies between u and k_0-1 is of minor importance and can be handled using straightforward tricks.

Summary of the parameters achieved by the threshold testing scheme described in Section V, for various choices of the lossless expander. The noise parameter $p \in [0,1)$ is arbitrary. The underlying expander corresponding to each row is: (1) an optimal lossless expander, (2) construction of Capalbo et al. [8], (6) construction of Guruswami et al. [12].

	Number of rows	Tolerable errors	Remarks
1	$O(d^3 \frac{(\log d) \log^2 n}{(1-p)^2})$	$\Omega(pd^2 \frac{\log^2 n}{(1-p)^2})$	
2	$O(d^3 \frac{(\log d)T_2 \log n}{(1-p)^{g+2}})$	$\Omega(pd^2 \frac{T_2 \log n}{1-p})$	$T_2 = \exp(O(\log^3 \log n)) = quasipoly(\log n).$
3	$O(d^{3+\beta} \frac{T_3^{\ell} \log n}{(1-p)^{g+2}})$	$\Omega(pd^{2-\beta} \frac{\log n}{1-p})$	$\beta > 0$ is any arbitrary constant and $T_3 = ((\log n)(\log d))^{1+u/\beta} = poly(\log n, \log d)$.

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